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ABSTRACT

This document contains five essays which explore the idea that increased teacher awareness and knowledge of human interaction will promote public acknowledgement and acceptance of (a) improved self-concept, (b) desire for learning, and (c) respect for others on the part of students, and establish these behaviors as accountable curriculum goals in every classroom. "Inservice Education and the Silent Curriculum" discusses human interaction processes created during instruction. "An Individualized Inservice Program Model for Competency Development" provides a model for defining competencies and developing a sound theoretically based inservice program. "Implementing an Open Model for Inservice Competency Development" presents a program that demands evaluation of the silent curriculum through self-evaluation as well as objective and subjective data gathering. "Bring Your Campus to Us" defines teacher competence and data-gathering procedures based on criterion-referenced scales. "Mini-Bus for Mini-Session for Maxi-Purpose" describes a specific example of taking the campus to the field in an effort to keep up-to-date on all methods employed in helping teachers improve instruction. (JS)

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INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS TO IMPROVE TEACHING COMPETENCE

Selected Papers by

Philip L. Hosford
Robert A. Roth
I. V. Ahnell
Elizabeth S. Manera and Robert E. Wright
Michael P. Wolfe

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Acknowledgments

These manuscripts were selected because they provide a feeling of inspiration and hope that we are "on our way" with inservice programs and on toward educational accountability. Much appreciation should be directed toward the positive writings of the four unsolicited manuscripts which were finally selected for this monograph. The unsolicited is often characterized by uniqueness. For this we are grateful even though it presents a slight problem, there is no obvious common thread of thought or synthesis.

It was decided at this point that some introductory remarks were necessary to synthesize these manuscripts. Phil Hosford was asked to perform this task because of his well-known theoretical background, which is clearly announced in his book.[1] I think the reader will find that Hosford successfully provides the needed synthesis in the opening article with his "silent curriculum" concept.

A single wish from these efforts is that all of you will share the same experience from reading this monograph as I did. An editor often ends up reading some manuscripts two, three, or even four times. I hope you find yourself doing the same with those in this monograph.

Special thanks are extended to the members of the Manuscript Review Team for their thoughtful suggestions; Ruth Heidelbach, Coordinator of Manuscripts; Chairperson Richard Ishler, and members of the ATE Communications Committee.

R. E. Wright
Member of the Communications Committee

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[1]Hosford, Philip L. *An Instructional Theory: A Beginning*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

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INTRODUCTION

Inservice Education and the Silent Curriculum

This monograph bears a proud title: *Inservice Education Programs to Improve Teaching Competence*. The title implies that someone knows what teaching competency is and has developed a program to improve that competency. Or perhaps the implication is less direct: the monograph may deal only with the *need* for inservice programs to improve teaching competency, or perhaps it provides a state-of-the-art message, or simply gives examples of programs designed to improve competency, with competency left undefined. Which of these implications is fulfilled will depend on what the reader brings to the monograph and which article(s) he reads.

That professionals should define the competencies of their field is axiomatic. Opponents of performance-based teacher education programs argue that only the results commmonly measured in a semi-trustworthy manner dictate and limit the definition of teacher competency. Consequently, the human aspect of a teacher living with learners and the results of that process are omitted.

In this introductory article, a broad view of teacher competency is presented to include the human interaction processes which are referred to throughout as the "silent curriculum." The silent curriculum is defined as that which is created in the process of instruction and, as such, must be included as a dominant element in any legitimate competency-based inservice program. It is often omitted because it can never be defined in advance. *How* teachers do what they do is the heart of the silent curriculum and it is created only as teachers teach. However, some of the results of the silent curriculum can be defined in advance and are highly valued by professionals in the field. Support for this position will be based primarily on the research findings reported here dealing with teacher values and common goals of public education.

During the last two years, seven different groups of teachers and administrators defined their own set of values by completing a forced Q-Sort of educational objectives. Each individual was given twelve slips of paper with one of the following common educational objectives printed thereon.

- Wise use of leisure time
- Knowledge of world problems
- Skill in use of the 3 R's
- Improved self-concept

- Sense of patriotism
- Preparation of college
- Desire for learning
- Physical and mental health
- Respect for others
- Preparation for employment
- Multi-cultural understanding
- Spiritual and moral values

Each person then separated the twelve slips into three equal piles: the four more important goals which the schools should accomplish; the four less important ones, and, the four "middle" ones. The participants then selected out the one most important objective from the more important pile, and the one least important objective from the less important pile

Results obtained in this way from 162 public school teachers, supervisors and principals, representing grades K-12, clearly showed the most valued four objectives to be: skill in use of the 3 R's; desire for learning; improved self-concept; and respect for others. If these are the desired results of grades K-12, then three of the four primary objectives are usually sought only through the silent curriculum. Only one of these four major goals is clearly reflected in lesson plans, curriculum materials, tests, grading and current state-wide testing programs. If teachers are to be held accountable on the basis of their competencies and the competencies assessed are only those related to the 3 R's, then only one-fourth of the important competencies are being evaluated.

Most of us who have taught school for more than even one year remember or know some teacher who is unquestionably competent in teaching subject matter as indicated by test scores of the learners at the end of the school year. The trouble is, after living a year with that teacher, the learners also have learned to hate school and the subject matter. Worse, they learned other undesirable things such as how to be more efficient cheaters; or that learning is related only to grades; or that respect for your neighbor or teacher has no value in the real world. Even though such a teacher is failing in three of the four major areas, he will be judged competent whenever competency is based only on the more easily measured area of achievement in subject matter.

Teachers feel strongly about their responsibility in the other three major areas. Each of the seven groups proclaimed without hesitation that if their teaching competencies were ever to be assessed in some systematic way, they would demand that all four areas shown in Figure 1 be included in the assessment.

With this broader definition of competency, the problems to be encountered in establishing inservice programs to improve teacher competency become clearer. An even greater advantage can be the redirection toward complementary goals of two giant forces, the first driving toward accountability and the second toward a humaneness in education. The accountability-scientific-behaviorist has much helpful data for us which he obtained using well designed procedures. The scholarly humanist defines for

Figure 1

The four most valued objectives selected by 141 public school teachers and 21 supervisors and principals

Skill in use of 3 R's	Improved Self-Concept
Desire for Learning	Respect for Others

us the meaning of the current literature which deplores the irrelevance of much of the scholastic achievement pressures and the lack of humaneness in educational processes aimed at such a singular goal.

With the blending of these two forces toward the achievement of a generalized goal of all four-fourths of Figure 1, the problems become primarily those of developing innovative and creative assessment procedures related to each of the four areas.

No article in this monograph limits discussion of competency to only one-fourth of the area of Figure 1. Bob Roth provides us with an excellent model for defining competencies and developing an inservice program lodged firmly on a sound theoretical base. Ahnell then gives us an example of how such a model can be applied in the real world. He provides us with an "open" model resulting in a program based on the beliefs and basic assumptions of the professionals involved. The program demands an evaluation of the silent curriculum aspects through self-evaluation and both objective and subjective data gathering with no single standard applicable to more than one teacher in any given situation.

Manera and Wright then urge teacher educators to get off campus and into the field with inservice programs designed to improve instruction. The IOTA program described clearly defines both teacher competence and data gathering procedures based on criterion referenced scales and includes even more areas than those of Figure 1. Wolfe then describes a specific example of taking the campus to the field in an effort to keep up-to-date all those engaged in helping teachers improve instruction.

Perhaps the common theme threading this monograph is simply a commitment to the idea that the silent curriculum must become less silent and more reliable; that increased teacher awareness, knowledge and practice of human interaction areas will cause public acknowledgement and acceptance of all four elements of Figure 1 to become accountable curriculum goals in every classroom. Then, inservice programs can be truly and acceptably performance-based, designed to increase our skills in helping learners see beyond, feel anew, and creatively think and do.

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AN INDIVIDUALIZED INSERVICE PROGRAM MODEL FOR COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT

Inservice Programs

In order to discuss and plan for an inservice program, or any other program for that matter, it is necessary to know what it is, why it is needed, and what its purposes are. The initial parts of this paper, therefore, will examine each of these points in the context of inservice education and competency-based teacher education.

Inservice education is a process for extending or continuing the professional development of educators while they are employed full-time with a particular school district. Usually this refers to teachers, but need not be limited to this group and should include administrators. Generally it is the employing district that offers, provides, or contracts for, the inservice program. In effect, it is on-the-job training.

There are several factors which indicate a need for inservice education. The training a prospective teacher receives in a four-year degree program is designed to provide him with the requisite qualifications for entry into the profession. The teacher education component generally consists of four semesters or less of education courses and field experiences. To turn-out a well prepared teacher who has had a variety of field experiences, this may not be enough time, even for initial entry into teaching.

Even if a preparation program does provide students with the necessary entry knowledge and skills, it certainly does not go beyond that. One's repertoire of teaching techniques can never really be said to be complete. There is a need to continually expand upon one's professional base.

A second important factor generates a need for inservice education. Teacher education is in a constant state of flux, with old ideas being cast aside and replaced, in addition to expanding and building upon current ideas with new information. Perhaps this dynamic aspect of education is not always reflected in teacher preparation programs, but this may be more a matter of insufficient dissemination and unwillingness to change than that of new information and ideas. Increased knowledge, (in both subject areas and education) new teaching techniques, and new curricula require inservice training programs.

The purpose of inservice education, therefore, is to meet the above needs. Its goal is to provide teachers an opportunity to increase their skills beyond entry level (and that which has been acquired through experience) to the profession. It is meant not only to assist the teacher in expanding, but in catching up with new developments in the field (knowledge, techniques,

curricula). It is important that the inservice program address itself to the individual's needs and be relevant to his teaching responsibility. Programs which are established just to have inservice activity, may be neither relevant to the realities of the classroom nor responsive to individual needs. Inservice programs provide for a continuing educational growth and renewal for educators.

Inservice programs can also be viewed as an opportunity to express one's own ideas and explore these with colleagues along with other trends in education. It allows one to keep active intellectually and avoid stagnation. In a sense, it aids in regenerating the thinking process in a never ending pursuit of instructional excellence. This may seem a bit esoteric, but hopefully it conveys an idea and reflects a very real concern.

In view of these needs and corresponding purposes, how have inservice programs responded? There is always a danger in generalizing, but the programs have been characterized as taking a "buckshot" approach to professional development. There may not be a systematic planned program which is related to the needs of the teaching staff in general, yet alone to each individual's needs.

In many instances the approach taken by those developing an inservice program is to offer (or require) training on topics which *they* feel meet the needs of their staff. A more frequently used criterion is that of interest. Program developers will offer what they feel is of interest or what teachers may indicate to be of interest from a list of alternative topics. If the program was interesting, it is judged to be successful.

More energetic planners search the literature for current topics, fads, or innovative ideas which appear to have promise. Certainly it is important that a staff be aware of new ideas and the issues which relate to them, but this is not enough to ensure adequate professional development of educators. A more comprehensive needs oriented approach is needed.

In addition, inservice programs frequently exist in isolation from professional goals or requirements of staff members. For example, a teacher may be pursuing a master's degree at a local teacher education institution. Sometimes this may be accepted toward inservice development requirements. The inservice program at the school, however, may be unrelated to the master's program, and it is not uncommon to find neither of these to be related to needs of the teacher in the classroom.

In many states teachers are required to accumulate additional credits after initial entry into the profession in order to qualify for advanced or permanent certification. This is a response to the needs beyond initial preparation pointed out earlier. In most cases college credit only is required or accepted for advanced certification in state regulations, and the relationship of credit to needs is not investigated. Inservice programs could provide a link between advanced certification requirements and the needs of the teacher in the classroom; however, this is rarely done.

Perhaps one of the most serious deficiencies in inservice programs is that they are not tied in any way to teacher evaluation. Evaluation should not be focused on only making judgments about competence. It should be well conceived to provide information about the strengths and weaknesses in a

teacher's professional ability. Once weaknesses have been identified, the teacher should be provided with opportunities to fill in gaps and improve areas in which deficiencies have been identified. Evaluation then becomes less threatening and serves a more useful function.

The scope of inservice education should be as broad as the professional needs of the teachers and administrators it serves. Traditionally, the focus has been on instructional competence, including teaching and management skills. Certainly this could form the core of any program. Examples of other areas which warrant consideration include curriculum development competence, inter-personal relations, and instructional self-analysis skills.

It is important to note that instead of planning an inservice program around "areas" such as these, it is preferable to think in terms of a needs analysis which includes all of the necessary components. The difficulty with a program that provides training in terms of all these areas is that it presupposes a need for training in these areas and assumes that all professional needs are encompassed by the areas defined. This is how teacher education programs (including advanced degrees) are usually structured. A needs oriented approach that includes these areas as part of the needs analysis process, however, neither presupposes needs nor comprehensiveness of the areas identified.

Competency Development

The title of this article includes the terms "individualized," and "competency development." Up to this point much of the discussion has related to the individualized aspects of inservice education. The needs analysis approach clearly supports this feature of the inservice program proposed here.

But what does "competency development" mean and how can it be approached? If one is to systematically approach inservice education, then it is necessary to define the skills (taken in its broadest sense) necessary to effectively perform the responsibilities associated with the particular position. The knowledge, skills, and personal attributes required have been referred to collectively as competencies. A competency describes the teacher or administrator's behavior and a level of expertise required for successful performance of a particular professional responsibility.

Competency development then, is a process of finding out and then clearly stating what one needs to be able to do in order to carry out his responsibilities, which is followed by a systematic process of providing the individual with these identified competencies. It is actually a very logical and simple concept, however the implementation becomes much more difficult.

An approach to preservice teacher education which has currently gained considerable notoriety and which has generated a great deal of controversy is the approach known as performance- or competency-based teacher education. Competencies include knowledge and classroom performance skills, and a level of proficiency is provided to indicate the standard necessary in order to have achieved the competency. It's essential elements include the stating of explicit competencies which are made public, the description of assessment techniques directly related to these competencies

which are also explicitly stated and made public. The program is designed to facilitate the student's achievement of the competencies which have been stated, and frequently a variety of modes are available for acquiring the competencies.

Inherent in the competency approach is a belief in the individualization or personalization of education including self-pacing. Many of the competency-based programs have taken a unique approach to the delivery system needed to incorporate the components of a competency-based program as described above. Instructional modules have been developed which contribute to an individualized program which focuses on specific competencies. Modules generally have the following components: clearly stated objectives which are observable, preassessment to determine if the objectives (competencies) are already possessed by the student, alternative methods of achieving the objectives as suited to individual interests or learning styles, and post-assessment to determine if objectives have been attained.

As one examines the needs of inservice education and the purposes it is to fulfill, and compares this with the basic tenets of competency-based education, it becomes evident that the methods of the competency-based approach can play a useful role in inservice teacher education similar to the way in which it has been applied to preservice education.

Perhaps the most obvious link is the need for individualization of inservice education and the emphasis placed on this type of instruction in most of the competency preservice programs, particularly as exemplified by the module approach. Another relationship is the importance in inservice programs for a more systematic approach which emphasizes the skills needed in the classroom for more effective teaching, and the emphasis in the competency approach on the identification of these essential skills and their specification as objectives of training.

The concept of using explicitly stated objectives as goals of teacher instructional programs is not without its critics. There is concern, for example, with the overspecification of outcomes with a resultant loss of meaning or intent of the objectives. There is concern that the breaking of skills into small pieces diminishes the integrative effect which must occur if the skills are to be meaningful. Attempts should be made here to adopt those essential components of the competency approach which appear to have merit for inservice teacher education, but to be aware of those problem areas that have been pointed out by some critics. This will result in a type of eclectic approach that utilizes those aspects that appear to have merit that are derived from a variety of approaches.

Overview of System

In the previous section the needs and purposes of inservice education were described. The next concern, which is much more difficult to deal with, is how to operationalize the necessary components into an effective inservice delivery system. An overview of such a system will be provided here. The system to be described is basically a simple one, the concepts are

not really new, but the system integrates them into a logical pattern. Figure 1 is schematic of the overall approach.

For the purposes of clarity, it can be assumed that the above model might be adopted at the school district level. Examples can then be provided in that context.

In order to provide a frame of reference for the development of the inservice model and particularly for the writing of competencies, the district staff (or those responsible for the inservice program) should identify the purposes and functions of such a program.

Theoretical Base

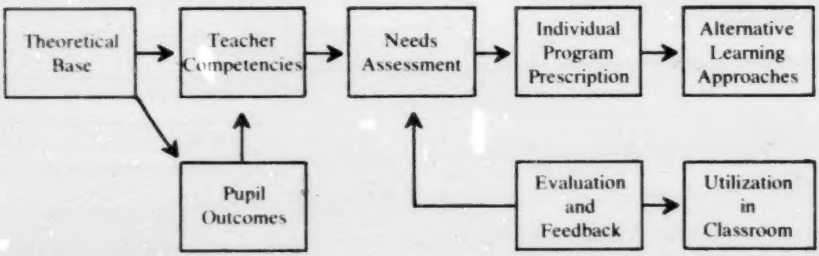
The first section of this paper suggests what the purpose and function of inservice education should be and could serve as a model for this task.

When involved in the task of defining competencies, some perspective on the nature of the teaching-learning process and goals of education are essential. This theoretical base describes the kind of learning environment desired in the schools, and the activities, roles, and dispositions of those who function within it. Some examples of teaching-learning statements are:

a) Student learning must be self-directed,
b) The teacher must assume a variety of instructional roles, at times a dispenser of knowledge, an advisor or guider of learning,
c) Students should discover knowledge and relationships,
d) The initiative for learning is with the teacher, he must motivate the child.

Whether you agree with these or not, note that they do provide descriptions of teaching and learning. A comprehensive network of these statements, internally consistent, provides a theoretical base or framework for the inservice program. An important point is that one needs to think about the educational process and what that means in terms of the roles of the staff in the everyday classroom situation.

Figure 1



Pupil Outcomes

Student outcomes should be consistent with the theoretical statements concerning learning. These objectives may reflect characteristics of individuals we are seeking to develop. For example, if one hypothesizes that learning takes place best through self-motivation and in a learning environment which is based upon the interests of the student, then we may establish as an objective that we want students who are capable of self-initiated action and who will exercise this to pursue learning.

The general conception about how students learn must also be followed by determinations of what information and processes the students will learn. This includes subject matter, thought processes, attitudes, etc., and can be written as more specific objectives. By defining these in clearly stated terms one is able to formulate those competencies which are directly or even indirectly derived from the desired student outcomes.

Competencies

Having identified the nature of the teaching-learning environment desired and the expected outcomes for students, one is prepared to take the next step, which is the defining of teaching competencies. The competencies should enable the teacher to create the necessary environment consistent with the teaching roles described earlier in the process. The competencies should be derived from both the statements of student expected outcomes and the description of the desired environment. The proper learning environment may foster the development of unexpected positive outcomes and, therefore, it is an important source from which to derive teacher competencies. Each of these two sources are necessary for the teacher competency description. If the program is to be successful the competencies, which form the basis of the entire process, must be accepted by the teachers. It is important, therefore, that teachers have the primary responsibility for defining competencies in their area.

Needs Assessment

Let us assume that a school district has gone through these initial steps and has determined what is necessary to teach a given subject area or grade level in its schools. What does this mean for the individual teacher? Clearly, the first question to be asked is does that teacher indeed have those competencies? A needs analysis must be conducted to determine if the teacher possesses the competencies, and the analysis should be based on, but not limited to, the competencies. The competencies would be the primary focus, but teacher perceived needs beyond the competencies identified should also be determined.

A needs assessment may be conducted utilizing a variety of sources of information, such as self-evaluation, video tapes, peer or supervisor observations, etc. The process is intended to determine deficiencies for each individual so that a program may be developed relevant to each teacher's

needs, instead of being based on current topics or other such variables. The needs analysis makes this possible.

Individual Program

Once it has been determined what a particular teacher needs, it is necessary to set up a program of instruction which meets these needs. The instructional system may consist of self-paced audio-visual units, small group sessions, or the more common inservice group instruction. Ideally, the instructional system both meets the individual needs of the teacher and provides a variety of approaches to acquiring the competencies that fit the teacher's learning style or preference. The inservice training is thus individualized in both aspects of the program.

It is important to note that a program, no matter how well planned or individualized, will not be successful unless there are incentives for educators (teachers, administrators) to improve the areas of deficiencies. Some will do this out of their own professional sense to improve their skills, others will need more tangible incentives such as higher steps on the salary scale, and others may need a strong push through required inservice training. Whatever the position on the topic, it is an important area that must be dealt with in designing a program.

Alternative Approaches

For the sake of continuing with the inservice model, let us assume that all preceding steps have been taken, including an individually prescribed program and appropriate incentives. Again, the system will not succeed unless there exists an available delivery system to provide the necessary training. The training processes must be suited to the needs of the individual teachers and must be accessible. Essential components of an appropriate delivery system includes the use of individual program prescriptions, the availability of training materials and processes appropriate for the design of individual programs, and assessment to determine when the teacher has achieved the objectives of the program (his needs).

Utilization

All of the preceding steps have been taken to improve the effectiveness of the teacher in the classroom or administrator in the school. The next step in the process, therefore, is to return to the work environment and utilize what has been learned. Several factors must be considered to ascertain whether the skills learned are effective. It is necessary to first determine whether or not the recently acquired skills are actually being used. Data from the needs assessment are useful for comparative purposes at this point.

Evaluation

Evaluation should be directly related to the objectives of the training program which is based on the needs of the teacher. Some objectives may

be evaluated following the training, but other objectives require classroom utilization and hence evaluation in that context.

Evaluation of the utilization procedure includes a follow-through process, where reinforcement of skills is provided whenever appropriate. This involves continually building up and practicing the competencies in question. Evaluation of what is or is not occurring involves a feedback process whereby the individual becomes aware of those competencies that he continually needs to practice.

At appropriate intervals, or when a skill is consistently lacking, a needs analysis is reformulated and used to prescribe additional inservice work, and the cycle at the end of Figure 1 is re-entered. Thus, the evaluation component involves follow-up activities to determine utilization of skills and follow-through activities to continue building and reinforcing newly acquired competencies.

Summary

The information provided here is only a general outline of what the process looks like and what needs to be done. A description of the issues and details of organization and approaches to the variety of tasks has been left for a more extensive treatment. The purpose of this paper is to provide an orientation to the system and hopefully stimulate interest in further study.

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IMPLEMENTING AN OPEN MODEL FOR INSERVICE COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT

One of the major problems which concerns many educators with respect to competency-based teacher education programs is the relatively closed learning system characterized by the programs. The desire to develop a system wherein the effects of variables can be carefully monitored and controlled seemingly contributes to the closed nature of most competency-based programs. The purpose of this paper is to present a competency-based model that is relatively open, and which has special significance for inservice staff development.

A primary difference between open and closed learning systems relates to the philosophical and psychological bases from which each is derived. Lindsey[1] has identified the influences of various individuals and concepts upon the development of educational thinking as shown in Figure 1.

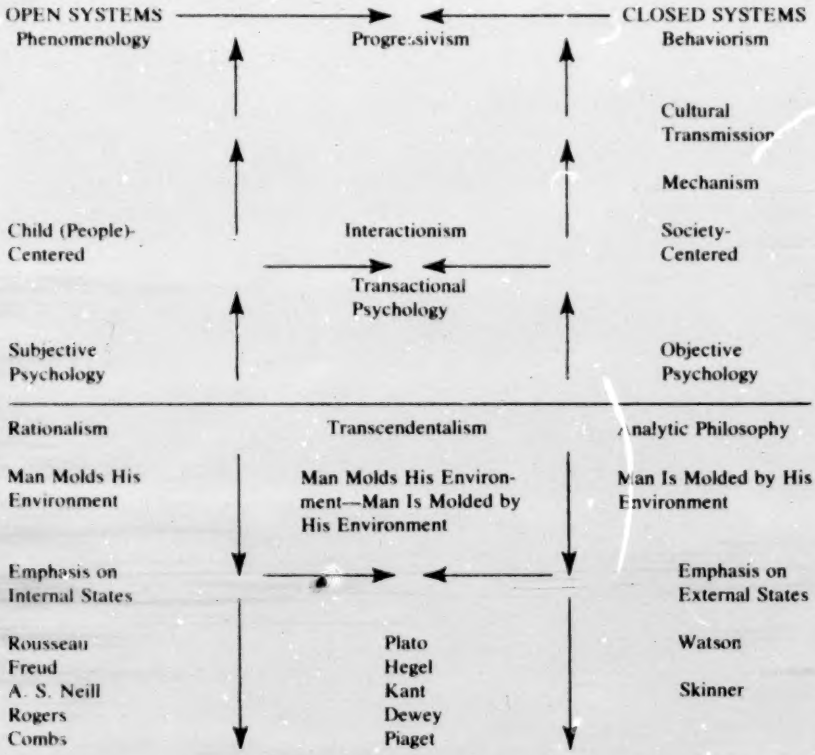
It was with a conscious awareness of distinct differences between open and closed learning systems, as can be seen in Figure 1, that the staff of the Department of Professional Laboratory Experiences at the University of Georgia set out to develop a competency-based program for the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of supervising teachers who work with student teachers.

Two basic ideas permeated the early discussions about the program. First, it was agreed that the program was to be designed as an open learning system rather than a closed system. There was a concern about a strictly behavioral approach; a concern shared by Combs.[2] Second, Combs'[3] concept of the "self as instrument" was to be utilized in arriving at means for helping teachers become effective supervising teachers. This second idea insured that the focus would be upon helping each supervising teacher to function more effectively in his own specific teaching situation, through the development of his own unique capabilities, rather than forcing each teacher into common practices and identical learning experiences.

Basic Assumptions

It is important in the development of any learning program that basic assumptions be identified. Too often this important step has been neglected with competency-based programs. Omission of clear definitions of basic assumptions has led to competency-based programs which are subject to severe criticism. While the end goals of these programs may be worthwhile, the means used in the implementation of the programs often tend to

Figure 1



Influences Upon Educational Thinking

emphasize the behavioristic elements of educational thought. Seldom is consideration given to the humanistic and phenomenological concepts of education which have evolved over the past several decades. In short, by not clearly identifying basic assumptions, educators have often developed competency-based programs which do not conform to many of the sound educational principles which they have recently come to accept.

If we should have learned any single fact from past experiences in teacher education, it ought to be that the teaching-learning situation is extremely complex. Maxwell[4] chides educators for their failure to recognize so little of the complexity of this phenomenon. Were educators to carefully analyze their competency-based programs in light of their basic educational beliefs they would probably reject many of the important features of their programs. Those features which specify rigorous attention to purely behavioral objectives and modules, to specific performances as criterion reference points, to

objective assessment alone, and to completely predetermined learning experiences are particularly suspect.

In the development of the Competency-Based Supervising Teacher Program (CBSTP) at the University of Georgia the educational beliefs of involved staff members were explored. In addition to college staff, forty experienced supervising teachers representing various subject fields were participants. From the beliefs of these groups a set of basic assumptions were agreed upon which became the framework for the model which was to be developed. Through the process of discussing beliefs and coming to agreement upon basic assumptions, participants were able to clarify their own thinking regarding the implementation of a competency-based program through means which would be relatively open and flexible.

The basic assumptions which evolved from the work of the public school and college participants relate to five areas of design and implementation of the CBSTP.

I. Identification of Competencies
   - A. There are competencies basic to effective supervision of student teachers
   - B. All individuals affected by the program should be involved in decision-making

II. Preassessment
   - A. Competency can be assessed
   - B. Preassessment can be accomplished through self-evaluation
   - C. Preassessment can involve both subjective and objective means

III. Identification of Instructional Needs
   - A. Instructional needs should be identified through preassessment
   - B. Individual program participants should have the major responsibility for identification of his instructional needs
   - C. The instructor should serve as a resource person in needs assessment

IV. Establishment of Means for Attaining a Competency
   - A. There are alternative means for attaining competency
   - B. One can identify, select, and implement personal and individual means for attaining competency
   - C. The instructor and teacher should establish mutally agreeable means for attaining competency

V. Assessment of Competency
   - A. Some competencies will not manifest themselves in situational performance
   - B. Assessment should involve subjective and objective means
   - C. Individuals can demonstrate attainment of competencies in various ways

D. Mutually agreed upon criteria for competency assessment should be cooperatively determined

From the assumptions shown above it can be seen that the model which was to evolve would logically focus upon a great deal of individual teacher initiative as well as respect for professional integrity between the college instructor and the supervising teacher. The model would need to provide for the identification of personal needs and the planning of individual learning experiences to meet those needs. In addition, assessment of competencies would necessarily relate to individualized assessment criteria, rather than a single standard applicable to all teachers.

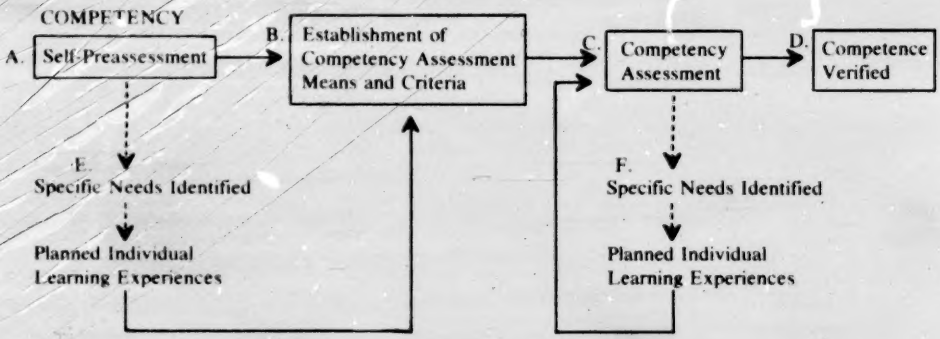
A Program For Inservice Competency Development

Twenty-two competencies in six major areas have been agreed upon for use at the University of Georgia in helping to improve the skills and abilities of supervising teachers. The competencies, along with a number of lower order objectives which function as self preassessment measures, comprise the body of the printed portion of the Competency-Based Supervising Teacher Program. It is planned that the program will be utilized with supervising teachers who have experienced the supervision of one or more student teachers. In this sense, the program is viewed as a field-based inservice program. It need consist of only one or two group orientation sessions. The rest of the program is to be completed individually in conjunction with the supervision of a student teacher.

Every competency-based teacher education program contains a list of competencies. Even more crucial than the identification of competencies is the manner in which a program for competency development is implemented. Figure 2 presents a model which can be utilized for inservice teacher education regardless of the specific competency which is to be

Figure 2

An "Open" Model For Competency Development



developed or improved. Examples from the University of Georgia CBSTP will be used to explain the critical elements of the model.

A. Self-Preassessment

The supervising teacher is asked to carefully review the list of competencies to determine, in his own professional judgment, whether or not he is proficient in a specific competency. If he believes he is, he indicates so and moves on to another competency. For example, one of the identified competencies is organizing for working with a student teacher. A self-preassessment item listed with this competency is—*Plans for conferences with the student teacher to discuss class and teaching plans, responsibilities, and problems.* If the teacher believes himself to be proficient in this respect, he would indicate so with a check mark and move to B in Figure 2.

B. Establishment of Competency Assessment Means and Criteria

At this point the teacher identifies the specific evidences which he believes are appropriate for determining whether or not he does—*Plan for conferences . . . etc.* He might list items such as: 1) Use period one for student teacher conferences, 2) Meet with student teacher at the end of each day to plan tomorrow's lessons, 3) Audio tape conferences with student teacher, 4) Verify through discussion with student teacher. These items form the nucleus of the criteria against which the teacher's competency in respect to planning for conferences is to be assessed.

While the teacher is responsible for initiating the assessment criteria, they are discussed with the college staff member working with the teacher. Through mutual professional judgements, agreement is reached as to the specific performances or measures (subjective or objective) which will provide evidence of having the competency. The result is a description of the criteria against which competency will be judged *for that particular teacher, in his own unique situation.*

C. Competency Assessment

While working with a student teacher the supervising teacher will have the opportunity to provide evidence of his competencies. The supervising teacher will need to inform the college staff member of the specific time when he will provide evidence of a particular competency (such as establishing and maintaining rapport). Some demonstrations of competency may be shown with audio or video tapes. Others may be determined through discussion with the student teacher. When the supervising teacher and college staff member are satisfied that the supervising teacher has provided evidence of having attained the competency (as judged against the competency assessment criteria) a notation of its verification is made, D in Figure 2.

Let us return for the moment to point A and assume that the supervising teacher does not believe himself to have the competency—*Plans for*

working . . . etc. If this occurs he will have identified a specific need (E in Figure 2). The teacher then initiates and notes means whereby he believes he can attain the competency. The supervising teacher, and a college staff member then work together in developing learning experiences for the supervising teacher. These means for attaining a specific competency might include readings, audio/video taping and analysis, discussion group experiences, formal course instruction, module work, or other forms of learning experiences. When the supervising teacher believes he has attained the competency through the learning experiences he indicates so and then proceeds to B, Establishment of assessment criteria.

The same process is utilized if, when working with a student teacher, the supervising teacher is unable to show that he has a competency as judged against the agreed upon assessment criteria. F in Figure 2 provides for this contingency. This process is again initiated by the supervising teacher and developed with the aid of the college representative. When the supervising teacher again believes competency has been attained, competency assessment recurs. If the competency has been attained it is verified. If not, the learning experience-competency assessment loop is again utilized until such time as attainment of the competency can be verified.

Discussion

The model shown in Figure 2 provides for the implementation of an inservice competency-based program that is unique in several respects. In moving through a program which utilizes this model the teacher assumes the entire responsibility for self-preassessment, and the major responsibility for suggesting means for meeting identified needs. He is also initially responsible for determining those behaviors or measures which will be utilized to assess the holding or attainment of a specific competency. The model thus provides for the individuality of the teacher's situation. It also removes a major objection of teachers to competency-based programs; the fact that someone else usually preassesses, determines assessment criteria, and judges whether or not the teacher does have a given competency. The model provides the opportunity for college staff and teachers to utilize their combined professional efforts for developing teacher competency without subjugating teachers to an inferior role.

Use of this "open" model also insures that the teacher evaluates himself. Much lip service is given to self-evaluation but few competency-based programs focus upon self-evaluation in any continuous manner. Self-evaluation and a resulting awareness of a need for change is a most desirable motivation for change to occur. But even when needs have been identified teachers often cannot prescribe means whereby they can bring about self-improvement. The model which has been presented provides opportunities for the teacher to practice the development and implementation of personal learning experiences.

Further, in the final analysis, the classroom teacher is ultimately responsible for determining his professional competence. What preparation does a teacher receive for developing criteria against which he may assess his own

teaching? Few competency-based programs allow the teacher education student the freedom to determine criteria. Yet this determination is of vital importance once the teacher is in the classroom and responsible for student learnings. For at that time he must develop standards for self-evaluation through his own professional judgements. The model which has been discussed insures that the teacher obtains experience in this area with the support and assistance of other professional educators.

Clearly, educators have a responsibility for designing eductional programs which reflect their eductional beliefs. The movement towards competency-based programs has been swift and all encompassing. Most competency-based programs resemble the closed systems approach developed by industry for working with the production of materials. Educators cannot afford to forget that they are working with complex and unique individuals.

Teacher educators must focus upon the development of educational programs that have their genesis in expressed basic assumptions; assumptions derived from considered educational beliefs. Programs for inservice staff development must recognize the professional integrity of teachers and be personalized to meet individual teacher needs. Open learning systems can serve this dual purpose. Closed systems cannot.

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BRING YOUR CAMPUS TO US

Was the hope drunk
Wherein you dressed yourself? Hath it
slept since?
And wakes it now, to look so green
and pale.

Macbeth

It might be said that many Colleges of Education have programs that have "slept for many years now." An awakening, however, is under way for some colleges, and perhaps only around the corner for others. This awakening may be rather rude and difficult; and many of the educational programs may not be able to handle it and become ineffective or cease to exist. This may sound rather strong but the bare facts remain that it is not *going* to happen, it *is* happening. What force is strong enough to "shake the very roots" of educational programs in such a way? It really has no special name; and does not really need one. But if a name must be attached to it, call it teachers' refusal to blindly accept existing programs, or better still, "the assertion of teacher power."

A new aspect of this power is making noises that have not been encountered before. The noise concerns knowledge, formal and informal, that teachers will acquire following completion of the bachelor's degree with its initial certification to teach. Noises like these have or will awaken faculty members of Colleges of Education because it threatens their very existence. Why? Teachers are no longer satisfied with the required courses for recertification purposes. In their opinion, there is expertise in their own ranks and with assistance from organizations to which they belong, they are now offering courses which they, not Colleges of Education, have decided are needed.

Colleges have always had the prerogative of offering inservice programs, but not for college credit and college personnel were not involved. Could not that credit be counted toward recertification? Now, that is new. But what can colleges do if teachers have already decided how to handle this problem? Wake up and take the positive, aggressive leadership role which colleges should be providing anyway. Work with the teachers, not against them. Why not lay to rest the rather facetiously made statement—which in part may be

true— that Colleges of Education are "not opposed to progress, just change." Provide leadership in alternative curriculum plans and someday what is now regarded as the traditional curriculum program may be the alternative.

Extremes in this area have already been established. They range from the traditional program where all courses are offered on campus with little, if any, input from the students to inservice courses offered off campus by state, district or local school personnel with total student input. Everyone is familiar enough with the traditional program, but an elaboration of the other extremes might be appropriate.

A Description Of What Is

The following statement appeared in a memorandum, dated August 21, 1973, and is in keeping with the Massachusetts Teachers Association (MTA) resolution C-1 as adopted by the MTA House of Delegates in May, 1973:

> The Massachusetts Teachers Association will continue to work for the improvement of teacher education on both undergraduate and graduate levels. However, it recognizes the need to establish new alternatives in higher education to meet the inservice and professional growth needs of its members. The Massachusetts Teachers Association will seek to develop, in cooperation with accredited institutions of higher education, an MTA Graduate Institute, with the authority to assign graduate credits to its activities, programs, and courses, with the program to be totally funded by the participants.

The memorandum goes on to say that a major goal of MTA is "to develop and demonstrate exemplary programs for teacher professional development through state teachers associations and college collaboration." This goal would be realized by several stated objectives including academic accreditation, professional training and inservice programs to MTA members, design masters level programs and summer institutes and others.

The point seems to be perfectly clear: MTA members feel that they are as qualified as any organization to offer courses that teachers want. To make it completely legitimate in regard to state certification standards, an institution of higher education should be a collaborator for teachers to receive graduate credit for courses.

University personnel know far better than anyone else that to find a collaborating institution of higher education to offer graduate credit is no chore. But this type of arrangement might lead to another problem. Will the institution become nothing more than a rubber stamp for the state association or is it possible that it has already happened? The big question probably is, "How long will state teacher associations need institutions of higher education to endorse their inservice course offerings? If it is now decided by teachers which course offerings to take through inservice, can teacher endorsed certification be far behind? Is this what colleges of education programs have to look forward to, or, with proper leadership, can something better be placed into practice?

Another concept of inservice education is presently being explored by State Departments of Education personnel. Included in this kind of inservice program are such advantages as: (1) State Departments traditionally employ people who are specialists in various subject or program areas and can provide instruction in these areas; (2) they are more accessible to school districts than other personnel such as universities; (3) their time is more flexible and can offer workshops at a time which is more convenient for public school teachers to attend; (4) workshops are usually inexpensive to either the school district or the individual; (5) even though their workshops do not usually carry college credit, they are, in many instances, counted as credits for certificate renewal. In some, the workshop credit can be counted on the local district salary scale.

There are three points that might be classified as disadvantages. First, the workshops do not usually carry college credit; therefore, they cannot count towards a Master's degree and permanent certification. Secondly, university personnel are usually involved in teaching per se, while State Department personnel do teaching in addition to many other tasks that require their time. It is difficult for anyone to achieve maximum effectiveness unless full time is devoted to that task. Thirdly, university personnel have access to libraries and other resources which enhance teaching and could make these available to workshop participants. State Department staff members, while they would have many materials, would not have the breadth nor depth of materials that university staff members have.

Examples have been cited here to explain individual programs that have effect on initial and continued preparation of teachers. The following will describe an inservice program where the College of Education has an active role *with* the state association for teachers in course offerings.

A special cadre of teachers from the State of Arizona have devoted their time and effort to become trained in a variety of innovative techniques. They in turn train others to foster improvement of instruction of all teachers throughout the state. The cadre—which is referred to as "Teachers Teach Teachers (TTT)"—started because a group of Arizona Education Association (AEA) board members wanted to improve themselves as well as help improve the teaching of others in the association. Through volunteers and recruitment, teachers from all academic disciplines and from all levels —elementary, secondary, junior college and the university—were brought together to participate in workshops with outstanding educators. The Association of Classroom Teachers financed these inservice workshops and in return the cadre members donated their time to teach these new skills to other teachers in the state. Since there were university professors on the cadre, arrangements were made to offer the workshops by the extension division of Arizona State University for graduate credit through the Secondary Education Department. One credit hour was offered for the 16-hour weekend workshop.

One Master's student was so pleased with the TTT workshop, he petitioned and received approval for replacing a traditional campus offering by three one-credit hour off-campus courses.

A broad generalization from this meager beginning might lead one to

believe that a total Master's program might be earned through a well-planned series of workshops.

Many other universities across the land are "carrying the message," to the teachers through similar inservice programs. In fact, some of these programs are so effective that teachers, administrators, school board members and auxiliary school personnel are actually requesting them in their schools. Perhaps that is the measure of a real quality program if *all* school personnel agree that such a program can provide a service to their school. Many of these inservice programs are offered through workshops that are more global than such specific areas as instruction in reading, drug education, and metric system. This sort of program seems to have special appeal to teachers and definitely so, if they have had input to the selection as well as decisions concerning any type of follow-through. Teachers working with administrators determining *what* teachers need and *when* they need it is *teacher power* in action. All such inservice workshops cannot be described here, but at least an indepth look at one should be appropriate. One successful program, based on the fact that *all* school personnel are involved and are requesting it, is the Instrument for the Observation of Teaching Activities (IOTA) Inservice Workshop.

IOTA—An Effective Inservice Program

Definition

The unique concept surrounding IOTA is the goal toward the *improvement* of teaching competence. Perhaps this concept is what makes it so appealing to teachers. What are the criteria used for this improvement of teaching competence? IOTA is based upon *The Role of the Teacher in Society*,[1] which defines six areas of teacher competence. These are:

1. Director of Learning
2. Counselor and Advisor
3. Mediator of the Culture
4. Link with the Community
5. Member of the Staff
6. Member of the Teaching Profession

These areas encompass the definition of competent teaching—consisting of 100 statements—and have been accepted by professional educators nationwide including recognition by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standard (NCTEPS), and the National Education Association (NEA).[2] A definition of competency so simple that even a novice can understand but comprehensive enough to satisfy the most astute educationist in most, if not all, areas of teaching. But, one may say, there are many good and acceptable definitions of competent teachers, which is true. What may set IOTA apart from many others is that it does not stop with its definition, but, instead, uses it to launch into other aspects of the inservice training—identifying teaching acts and evaluating them.

Objective Evaluation-Observation Scales (Measures)

Objectivity! That is a key word in IOTA language. Can an observer in a classroom gather data on a purely objective basis? Proponents answer with a resounding *YES*! There are acceptable teaching acts which are representative of competent teaching that can be objectively measured. Those teaching acts, 14 in all, are derived from the definition of teaching competence. It would seem to follow, then, that if one accepts the IOTA definition of teaching competence, one would accept the validity of the teaching acts.

Most, if not all, classroom teachers and administrators are interested in providing vibrant, exciting and meaningful learning experiences for children. Teachers, administrators and lay people agree that a competent teacher would, at some time, be engaged in many, perhaps all 14 of the following activities. For purposes of this paper, a brief description of each activity is listed below:

1. *Learning Centers*—works with students to establish learning centers that are related, or not related, to topics under study.
2. *Variety in Activities*—keeps the class interesting and stimulating by changing activities involving instruction.
3. *Use of Materials*—selects classroom materials well and uses them effectively.
4. *Classroom Control*—encourages self-discipline.
5. *Learning Difficulties*—helps students to accept and resolve learning difficulties.
6. *Individualization of Instruction*—assists each student individually.
7. *Development and Implementation of Classroom Goals*—works with class to establish realistic goals and how to achieve them.
8. *Opportunity for Participation*—students learn by doing. They cannot do without the opportunity.
9. *Teacher Reaction to Student Response*—accepts openly student response and builds on it to increase learning.
10. *Creative Expression*—encourages creative expression from all students.
11. *Development of Student Initiative*—makes available opportunities for student initiative.
12. *Social Climate*—provides a pleasant classroom through developing positive student relationships.
13. *Subject Matter Preparation*—unquestionable knowledge in both general and specific subject areas.
14. *Current Application of Subject Matter*—generalizes knowledge of subject matter to "real world" living and working.

Most teachers probably teach in the area of these 14 activities but do so with varying levels of proficiency and frequency. Level? Yes, the first step for everyone would be an awareness of these items, although most teachers are not satisfied with just being aware of these activities. Once cognizant of them, they are eager to increase their performance. How can they improve? IOTA provides five items for each activity to help the teacher assess his own

performance to determine if he is operating at a desired level. Teaching activity number four illustrates the five levels of performance.

Classroom Control (1)
The Teacher:

A. Provides an atmosphere in which industrious self-regulation is generally maintained.
B. Imposes authority rigorously which is frequently circumvented or ignored.
C. Imposes standards of conduct that are generally maintained.
D. Intervenes frequently to maintain control.
E. Encourages self-directed standards of conduct that are maintained with occasional lapses.[3]

The "one" in parentheses following "Classroom Control" above indicates that information contained in this activity was obtained from the definition in *The Role of the Teacher in Society* and more specifically, from the area of "Director of Learning." In all 14 activities, the five items are randomly placed for obvious reasons. One of the items describes the highest level of competence, and one describes the lowest level of competence. The other three items vary in degree between the top (best teacher) and the bottom (less than the best).

These items, which are derived from the definition, are the real strength of IOTA. They enable the observer(s) in the classroom to gather data and score it *objectively*. All the observer has to do is write down what he sees or hears in the classroom and then determine which item most nearly describes that situation. When the same procedure is employed with all 14 activities, a profile of the teacher begins to emerge. That profile is where the beginning of "improvement of instruction" begins. No person can be aided to improve until *that* person determines where he is. For that reason, the IOTA inservice workshops are attended by all school personnel. The instrument should never be used by a person who has not been through a workshop, nor should it be used with a teacher who has not had the training.

It should be evident that by using this procedure, several things begin to develop:

1. The teacher is much less threatened when being evaluated by IOTA than with many other instruments.
2. Only objective data is collected, analyzed, scored and discussed.
3. Classroom teachers and observers do not have the usual "hang-ups" associated with evaluation, because they are able to communicate with one another. The inservice workshops establish a common vocabulary or dialogue about evaluation for both teacher and administrator.
4. The philosophy of IOTA mandates (a) that data not be used to threaten teachers by some sort of punitive action as has been known to happen in the past with many other instruments, and (b) that profiles be developed with the teacher, and (c) all emphasis is placed on the *improvement of instruction*.
5. Since the teacher has had IOTA training he is able to score the data that

fellow teachers and administrators have collected and, therefore, has an important part in the establishment of his own teaching profile and plans for improvement.

Perhaps other forms of evaluation instruments would be satisfied with a system that provides reliable data which helps teachers improve their classroom teaching. IOTA designers, however, believe that actual classroom teaching activities are only a part, although a very large part, of the total teaching package. Teachers do many things concerning instruction that bring them in contact with peers, community lay people, and other school personnel associated with specialized needs of students. Therefore, in addition to the 14 classroom observation activities, another aspect of teaching referred to as Interview Scales (Measures) has been included.

Objective Evaluation–Interview Scales (Measures)

For a teacher to be completely competent by IOTA standards, he would be aware of and practice, to some degree, the following interview scale items. Since they are an extension of the observation scales, they are numbered as follows:

15. Peer Relationships
16. Participation in School Staff Activities
17. Articulation of Classroom Program to Total School Curriculum
18. Parent Participation in School Activities
19. Utilization of Community Resources
20. Personal Professional Responsibility
21. Professionai Self-Evaluation
22. Teacher in the Community
23. Skill in Enhancing Multi-Cultural Relationships
24. Evaluation of Individual Student Progress by the Teacher
25. Development of Student Self-Assessment
26. Work with Specialized Services
27. Assists Students in Exploring Vocational Opportunities

These items are also products of the definition of teaching competence. The same pattern of five skill levels are designed for each scale item just as in the observation activities e.g., number 19.

19. Utilization of Community Resources (1,4)

The Teacher:

A. Uses a variety of community resources systematically, relating them skillfully to educational objectives.
B. Utilizes community resources frequently to achieve educational objectives.
C. Uses some community resources which are unrelated to current educational objectives.
D. Makes little or no use of community resources.
E. Uses some community resources to achieve educational objectives.[4]

School people would quickly recognize that number 19 is derived from the definition contained in "Director of Learning" and "Link with the Community." Additionally, these same people would decipher that one of the items ranks higher than the others for maximum competent teaching. Conversely, one of the scale items would rank at the lowest level. The other three are ranked by levels in agreement with teaching competence.

Once again, as with the observation measures, only objective data is gathered from using the interview measures. The classroom teacher is interviewed by an administrator and/or fellow teacher. When the data is gathered, all people involved in the process, i.e., the interviewer and interviewee, score the data by selecting the appropriate level of the items. Scores are compared for accuracy and discussed in view of what the teacher may choose to do in the future to increase competence.

When you add the 13 interview measures to the 14 observation measures, a total of 27 different experiences are employed to gather data on the complete role of teaching. Some may argue that all areas of teaching are not included in these 27 measures. IOTA designers would probably be the first to agree, and would also point to a very important fact—these 27 measures are designed to gather data about teaching that can be measured *objectively*, not subjectively. Many educators have agreed that these 27 measures do represent good teaching and when teachers have been exposed to these measures, their self-awareness of what they do in the classroom is increased. When introspection occurs in the dedicated teacher, positive growth is usually close behind. All he needs is direction and mastery of these 27 measures, and an IOTA inservice workshop could provide those skills.

Research of IOTA Concept

The concept of IOTA may appear to be relevant and timely, but is there any research to support changes that may occur in teaching? Yes, there is.

Perry found that groups of student teachers who had participated in IOTA seminars improved their teaching performance, developed attitudes which were more tolerant of children's misbehavior, modified their performance and attitudes toward students and schoolwork and became more concerned with the child's opinions and feelings than with child control.[5] When Randall compared teachers who had this training with teachers who had not, his comparison revealed the following:

When subjects were exposed to an IOTA workshop:

1. the more positive their attitude toward children, the less lecturing, the less direct verbal behavior and the less subject matter concentration.
2. the more their beliefs about child control were modernized, the less concentration on subject matter.
3. the more favorable opinions they had about children, the less concentration on subject matter.
4. the less controlling attitude they had toward children, the more indirect they were in classroom verbal behavior.[6]

The effectiveness of the IOTA instrument has been tested in several research projects and indicated that "an analysis of the results showed that the instrument is of acceptable quality." As a measure of consistency the correlation between the observations of multiple observers working independently is around .87. The discriminating quality of the scale was sufficient to show a significant difference between groups with different backgrounds of preparation when used in experimental projects.[7] The special appeal of IOTA to teachers may be the consistency of the observers and the discriminating quality of the scale.

Popularity of IOTA Inservice Workshops

Objectivity! Common dialogue! Administrative understanding! When these components are present, it is easy to see why teachers and administrators are requesting IOTA inservice workshops for their districts. Teachers are not threatened by objective assessment of their teaching. IOTA emphasizes that the administrator has a *vital* role in improving teaching competence and it stresses a cooperative responsibility—teacher and observer—to help the teacher do better those things which the teacher wishes to do.

Perhaps the foremost reason that teachers and administrators rank IOTA so effective is its criterion reference—as contrasted to a norm reference —design. Teachers are not measured against other teachers, but are measured against a criterion. Each teacher, as an individual, is compared to that criterion rather than other teachers. Perhaps that is why teachers and administrators feel so comfortable with this instrument and philosophy. In the final analysis, IOTA seeks to provide the process through which teachers and observers (fellow-teachers, supervisors, department chairpersons, assistant principals, or principals) may gain insights into the teaching-learning act. Proficiency in these skills enables them to objectively assess the teacher's competence and increase professional expertise through the application of objective standards and criteria. IOTA does not purport to have all the cures for educational ills, but it does provide some new insights into some old problems; and it is an inservice program that public school people and university personnel are requesting. Everyone is interested in improving instruction.

IOTA is holding, or has held, workshops in 30 states which must rank it as one of the largest inservice programs in existence today. That fact alone says, "Let the record speak for itself."

The IOTA program is but one of many excellent inservice programs in operation today. It is presented here only to emphasize that inservice programs are available that are current with the educational times and are geared to specific needs of teachers in the field. All programs, in the field or on campus, should address themselves to assisting the practicing teacher to do those things better that he wishes to do.

Inservice Programs Should Rank Top Priority

Yes, instructional improvement continues to receive high priority in the efforts of educational leaders in the nation's schools. The writers in no way intend to imply that college programs in education are not or have not been doing anything about instructional leadership. They have assisted in many programs that have come and gone, with each leaving some mark on education. For instance, college programs became involved in such topics as instructional tv, differentiated instruction, flexible scheduling and buildings, team teaching, nongradedness, programmed instruction, language labs, teacher-aides, year-round schools, data processing and many, many others. But, times change and so do programs, and although each of these programs have made their contribution and have added to the total picture, it is now time to move on to more contemporary needs.

What teachers want, teachers are going to get. Relevant inservice programs are in more demand today than ever before. Dean C. Corrigan, Dean, College of Education, University of Vermont, in a keynote address to the General Assembly of the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) in February, 1974, stated that several hundred thousand teachers will need inservice programs within the next few years. True, Dr. Corrigan was discussing the goals and purposes of humanizing education. One needs, however, only to reexamine the IOTA program to draw parallels between humanizing education and observation measures one, four, six, seven, eight, nine, and twelve.

Dr. Corrigan's comments concerning inservice education are well taken but there appears to be a small problem developing. A power struggle seems to be emerging between Colleges of Education and other agencies involved in providing inservice programs. Teachers are unconcerned about who wins the struggle. They are only concerned with relevant programs, but because of their close tie with universities, they have turned to them with a clear message—*BRING YOUR CAMPUS TO US*. Bring your courses and your professors to our house. Let's play school in our backyard for a change. Come to us and see *our* programs in action, then give us the assistance we need. We want you to help us with our problems. Will the colleges hear? Will they awaken in time to continue to be an effective leader in educational programs? Can they continue to work *with* teachers to improve instruction for students? Or, will they basically continue to offer the same programs at the same place they have for years—on the college campus. If so, it may be that Colleges of Education may lose the struggle and teachers will turn to other sources to fulfill their needs. Continued certification of teachers may hang in the balance. Yes, wake up Colleges of Education and take your place in an exciting new phase of preparing teachers.

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MINI-BUS FOR MINI-SESSION FOR MAXI-PURPOSE

The Problem

Today's teacher educators are inundated with innovations ranging up and down the educational ladder. Programs to upgrade pre-school education, strategies for discovery learning, mini-courses for teacher education, modules for competency-based education, and a variety of new trends to make our schools and teachers more accountable are just a few. The list of ideas and proposals continue to expand rapidly.

It is not uncommon to read about innovative programs in teacher education being abandoned as failures. Invariably, these failures are being blamed on such things as "poor program design," "inadequate funds or materials," "insufficient planning time," and "lack of administrative support." Program evaluations never cite "lack of teacher competency" as the major factor for failure. Yet, it is not unreasonable to expect that even highly effective university professors will lack competencies for a new program which departs significantly from those in which they have been teaching. It seems highly possible that this may *just* be the major factor in the failure of the majority of abandoned programs.

This cry for inservice training is being heard in many universities which are immersed in innovations such as Competency-Based Teacher Education.[1]

"There is a *need* for mounting a substantial inservice program for those who prepare teachers, including professors of education. As the needs of the local schools emerge, there is a corresponding need for professional retooling at the college and university levels. Providing opportunities for college faculties to improve their skill, especially their ability to provide service to local schools, become vital."[2]

Central Michigan University provided a unique opportunity for a part of its faculty to learn about an innovative program—Competency-Based Teacher Education. The Student Teaching Department, because of its many off-campus teaching centers, had particular need for on-site, inservice training. Thus, one professor equipped with a mini-bus was released for a three-week summer mini-session to travel throughout the State of Michigan offering inservice training for student teaching professors and public school personnel.

A permanent mockup of this Mobile Automat is currently operational in the Swan Valley School District, Saginaw, Michigan. It consists of a building holding a substantial collection of pamphlets, books, films, filmstrips, cassette tapes, games, video tapes, and training materials to

operationalize the Swan Valley Competency-Based Teacher Education Project.

Including such a collection in the Automat provided a library resource that professors and teachers used to meet their needs as identified by themselves or supervisors. It also allowed a preliminary tryout of training packages developed elsewhere without committing programmed system time to each one.

Professors and teachers tried these products during their routine use of the Automat. Those materials that proved especially valuable were considered for use in their student teaching centers.

The Automat was conceived as a mobile, automated, training-resource center of use to preservice, inservice, and college professors alike. As visualized, a Volkswagon van containing video tape equipment, a bank of teaching skill tapes, and other printed material, was located next to a school building. Given ready access to these materials, the student teaching professor and his public school representatives were aided in developing a training program to update their own teaching competencies. The van also provided facilities for training and research activities conducted within the school.

Table I

An Illustrative List of Materials Included in the Teacher Training Automat, 1974

TYPE OF MATERIAL	TITLE
Films	18 Stanford Teaching Skills Innovative films from university library
Filmstrips	*Vimcet Series on Behavioral Objectives* *Discipline in the Classroom* *Writing Contracts with Students* *Instructional Design and Evaluation*
Audio tapes	Glasser's *Reality Therapy* Flander's *Interaction Analysis* Weingartner's *Teaching as a Subversive Activity* *Gestalt Tapes*
Video tapes	*Questioning Strategies* *Interaction Analysis*
Curriculum Material	15 file drawers on teaching skills Teaching strategies, CBTE, Human Relations Skills, and Teaching and Learning Ideas.
Games	*Star Power* *Raid* *Ecology* *The Feel Wheel* *Black and White* *Subject Matter Games*

The role of the Automat Director was conceived as an extension of the resources of the mobile van. He is one who is experienced with the Automat Training Materials as well as one who is able to facilitate the development of CBTE programs in local school districts.

The concept of a mobile teacher education center has many implications for on-site, inservice teacher education. For too long the university campus and professor have been perceived as the fixed fountain of inservice training. It's high time we begin to take our wares into the field in order to provide on-site, inservice training to both university and public school personnel. The implications of a mobile center are only limited by the educator's creativity and individual center's needs.

Selected References

1. "State Survey." American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, March 20, 1972.
2. Mario Fantino. "The Reform of Teacher Education: A Proposal for New York State." *Phi Delta Kappan*, April, 1972, pp. 476—482.

SELECTED ATE PUBLICTIONS
(1975 Prices Quoted)

_____ 38 CBTE: A Potpourri of Perspectives—Waterman, et. al., 1974
$3.50 (861-27410)

_____ 37 Teacher Leadership: A Model for Change—Andrew, 1974
$4.00 (861-27435)

_____ 36 Winds of Change: Teacher Education for the Open Area School, 1974
$3.00 (861-27423)

_____ 35 To Cope with the Current: Guidelines for Activities for Learning to Deal with Change—Martin, 1974
$3.00 (861-27411)

_____ 34 Students' Rights: A Guide to the Rights of Children, Youth and Future Teachers—Haberman, 1973
$2.50 (867-24492)

_____ 33 Guiding Student Teaching Experiences in a Cooperative Structure—Kerber and Protheroe, 1973
$2.50 (867-24490)

_____ 32 Teacher Preparation: Supervision and Performance—Spanjer, 1972
$2.50 (867-24488)

_____ 31 Teachers Should be Human Too—Andrew, 1972
$2.50 (867-24486)

_____ 30 The Teaching Clinic: A Team Approach to the Improvement of Teaching—Olsen, Barbour, and Michalak, 1971
$1.25 (867-24484)

_____ 29 Teaching is Communicating: Nonverbal Language in the Classroom—Galloway, 1970
$2.00 (867-24482)

_____ 28 Supervisory Conference as Individualized Teaching—Bebb, Low, Waterman, 1969
$1.25 (867-24480)

_____ 21 The Student Teacher's Experiences in the Community—Blair and Erickson, 1964
$1.00 (867-24440)

_____ 1 Guiding Student Teaching Experiences—Hilliard and Durrance, 1968
$1.00 (867-24466)

*Write to ATE for a complete listing of publications.